



CSCE 421: Machine Learning

Lecture 5



Overview

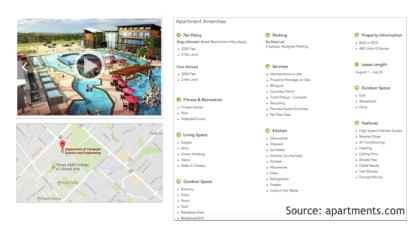
- Linear Regression: What have we learnt so far
 - Representation
 - Analytic Solution: Ordinary Least Squares
- Linear Regression: Numerical solution
 - General gradient descent
 - Gradient descent for linear regression (batch, stochastic, mini-batch)
- Non-linear basis function for regression



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- Linear Regression Basics
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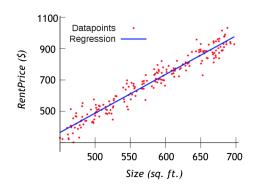




 $RentPrice = w_0 + w_1 \times Size + w_2 \times DistanceFromCS + \dots$



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- Input x: apartment attributes (e.g., size, neighborhood)
- Output y: rent price of apartment
- Model parameters w
- Linear model: $y = f(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = w_1 x + 1 + \ldots + w_D x_D$
- Non-linear model: $y = f(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$



$$RentPrice = w_0 + w_1 \times Size + w_2 \times DistanceFromCS + \dots$$

RentPrice = $w_0 + w_1 \times \text{Size} + w_2 \times \text{DistanceFromCS} + \dots$

How do we find the unknown model parameters $\{w_0, w_1, w_2, ...\}$?

We use training data!

Training Sample	Size (sq.ft.)	DistanceFromCS (miles)	RentPrice (\$)
1	498	11.9	675
2	513	8.6	750
3	621	8.3	800
4	710	3.4	965



Linear Regression

Representation: linear combination of features

$$f: \mathbf{x} \to y, \ f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

• **Evaluation**: Minimizing the residual sum of squares

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} RSS(\mathbf{w}), RSS(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

 $\bullet \ \ \textbf{Optimization} : \ \mathsf{Analytical} \to \mathsf{Ordinary} \ \mathsf{least} \ \mathsf{squares} \ (\mathsf{OLS}) \ \mathsf{solution}$

$$\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Is this a global minimum? \rightarrow 2nd derivative test



Linear Regression: Global minimum

Theorem

Consider an optimization problem

$$\min f(\mathbf{x})$$
 s.t. $\mathbf{x} \in \Omega$

where f is a convex function and Ω is a convex set.

Then any local minimum is also a global minimum.

How do we find in f is convex?



Linear Regression: Global minimum

Definition 1

A set Ω is convex if for all $x,y\in\Omega$ and for all $\lambda\in[0,1]$ $\lambda x+(1-\lambda)y\in\Omega$

[In practice, if we draw a line between any two points of the set, every point on the line still lies within this set]



convex



non-convex

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Linear Regression: Global minimum

Definition 2

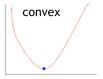
A function f is convex if its domain dom(f) is a convex set and for all $x,y\in dom(f)$ and $\lambda\in [0,1]$

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \le \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$$

[In practice, the line segment connecting (x,f(x)) and (y,f(y)) should sit above the graph]

The second-derivative test

If the Hessian matrix $\mathbf{H_f}$ of f is positive semi-definite, then f is convex. i.e. $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{H_f} \mathbf{u} \geq 0$, $\forall \mathbf{u}$







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Linear Regression: Computational Complexity

- Bottleneck for computing the solution $\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$ is to invert the matrix $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times D}$
- Computational complexity is $O((D+1)^3)$ using Gauss-Jordan elimination
 - Impractical for large D
- Alternative
 - Find approximate solution through an iterative optimization algorithm
 - e.g. Gradient Descent



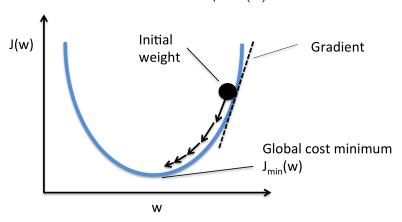
Gradient Descent

- Iterative algorithm finding a function's minimum via local search
- Standard optimization algorithm in many ML applications
 - e.g. linear regression, logistic regression
 - scales well to large datasets (e.g. no matrix multiplication)
 - proof that it solves many convex problems
 - good heuristic to non-convex problems as well
- Input: Function $J(\mathbf{w}) \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output: Local minimum w*
- Goal: Minimize $J(\mathbf{w})$ via greedy local search



Gradient Descent

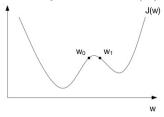
1-dimensional example: $J(w) = w^2$





Gradient Descent: 1-dimensional case

What will happen if we try to minimize J(w) via a local search?

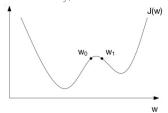


- Starting from w₀
 - We look to the right $(J(w) \uparrow)$ and to the left $(J(w) \downarrow)$
 - We take a small step to the left
 - We repeat the above until we reach the left basin
- Starting from w₁
 - We similarly reach the right basin
- It is clear that the outcome depends on the starting point



Gradient Descent: 1-dimensional case

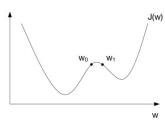




- While $J'(w) \neq 0$
 - If J'(w) > 0 (i.e. $J(w) \uparrow$), move w a little bit to the left
 - If J'(w) < 0 (i.e. $J(w) \downarrow$), move w a little bit to the right
- The derivative J'(w) is used to decide which direction to move
- In other words, move w towards the direction of -J'(w)



Gradient Descent: Algorithm Outline

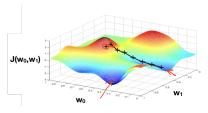


1-dimensional

- 1 Initialize w, ϵ , $\alpha(\cdot)$, k := 0
- 2 While $\left|\frac{dJ(w)}{dw}\right| > \epsilon$

$$2a \ k := k + 1$$

2b
$$w := w - \alpha(k) \cdot \frac{dJ(w)}{dw}$$



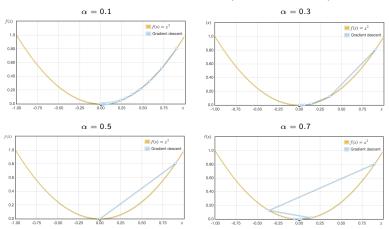
[Source: Machine Learning, Coursera, Andrew Ng]

- 1 Initialize **w**, ϵ , $\alpha(\cdot)$, k := 0
- 2 While $\|\nabla J(\mathbf{w})\|_2 > \epsilon$

2a
$$k := k + 1$$

2b
$$\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{w} - \alpha(\mathbf{k}) \cdot \nabla J(\mathbf{w})$$





- If $\alpha(k)$ too small, convergence is unnecessarily slow
- If $\alpha(k)$ too large, correction process will overshoot and can diverge

Source: http://www.onmyphd.com/?p=gradient.descent

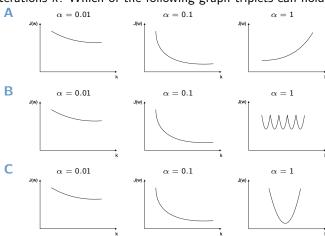


How to chose α ?

- In practice, through experimentation
 - Check how $J(\mathbf{w})$ behaves over iterations for multiple α
 - ullet lpha is a hyper-parameter
 - Therefore it can be tuned using a dev-set or a cross-validation framework

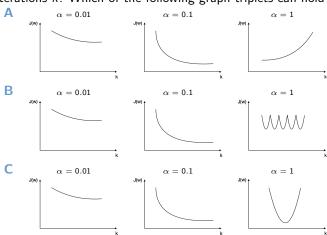


Question: A cost function $J(\mathbf{w})$ is optimized with Gradient Descent (GD) using different step size values α . We plot $J(\mathbf{w})$ w.r.t. the number of GD iterations k. Which of the following graph triplets can hold?





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All answers can occur.



Gradient Descent: Stopping rule

- Hyper-parameter ϵ (i.e. $\|\nabla J(\mathbf{w})\|_2 > \epsilon$) determines when to stop
- Small ϵ : many iterations but higher quality solution
- Large ϵ : less iterations with the cost of more approximate solution
- How to chose ϵ in practice?
 - Try various values to achieve balance between cost and precision
 - Again use some type of cross-validation framework
- Hyperparameters: Parameters set before the beginning of the learning process (e.g. α , ϵ in gradient descent)
- Hyperparameter tuning: The process of choosing a set of optimal hyperparameters for the learning process
- Model parameters: The parameters learned during the learning process (e.g. weights **w** in linear regression)



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We can now derive the algorithm outline for minimizing the residual square sum (RSS) error of linear regression with gradient descent

The residual sum of squares is the cost function:

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = RSS(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^{T}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

$$= \mathbf{y}^{T}\mathbf{y} - 2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^{T}\mathbf{y} + (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^{T}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

$$= \mathbf{y}^{T}\mathbf{y} - 2\mathbf{w}^{T}(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{w}^{T}(\mathbf{X}^{T}\mathbf{X})\mathbf{w}$$

Gradient Descent optimization expression:

$$\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{w} - \alpha(\mathbf{k}) \cdot \nabla J(\mathbf{w})$$

$$\nabla J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\vartheta RSS(\mathbf{w})}{\vartheta \mathbf{w}} = -2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y} + 2\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} = 0$$



Question: Derive the algorithm outline for minimizing the residual square sum (RSS) error of linear regression with gradient descent

(Batch) Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

- 1 Initialize **w**, ϵ , $\alpha(\cdot)$, k := 0
- 2 While $\|\nabla RSS(\mathbf{w})\|_2 > \epsilon$
 - 2a k := k + 1
 - 2b $\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{w} \alpha(\mathbf{k}) \cdot (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y})$



Stochastic Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

Update weights using one sample at a time

- 1 Initialize **w**, ϵ , $\alpha(\cdot)$, k := 0
- 2 Loop until convergence
 - 2a k := k + 1
 - 2b Randomly choose a sample (x_i, y_i)
 - 2c Compute its contribution to the gradient $\mathbf{g_i} = (\mathbf{x_i}^T \mathbf{w} y_i) \cdot \mathbf{x_i}$
 - 2d Update the weights $\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{w} \alpha(\mathbf{k}) \cdot \mathbf{g_i}$



Mini-Batch Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

Update weights using subset of samples at a time

- 1 Initialize **w**, ϵ , $\alpha(\cdot)$, k := 0
- 2 Loop until convergence
 - 2a k := k + 1
 - 2b Randomly choose a subset of samples

$$S = \{(\mathbf{x_i}, y_i), \dots, (\mathbf{x_{i+M}}, y_{i+M})\}\$$

2c Form the mini-batch data matrix
$$\mathbf{X}_{S} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_{i+M}^{T} \end{bmatrix}$$

2d Update the weights
$$\mathbf{w} := \mathbf{w} - \alpha(k) \cdot \left(\mathbf{X_S}^T \mathbf{X_S} \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{X_S}^T \mathbf{y}\right)$$

- Good compromise between batch and stochastic gradient descent
- Common mini-batch sizes range between M=50-250 samples



- Batch gradient descent computes exact gradient
- Stochastic gradient descent
 - Computes approximate gradient using one sample per iteration
 - Its expectation equals the true gradient
- Mini-batch gradient descent
 - Computes gradient based on subset of samples
- For large-scale problems stochastic or mini-batch descent often work well



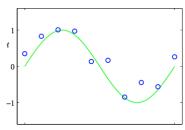
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What if data does not fit a line?

Example: Samples from a sine function



We can use a non-linear basis function

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}): \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D
ightarrow \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

We can apply our linear regression model to the new features

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z_i} = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x_i})$$

$$RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x_i}))^2, \ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

$$RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x_i}))^2, \ \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

Example: $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2]^T \in \mathbb{R}^2, \ \phi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2^2, x_1^3 + x_2]^T \in \mathbb{R}^3$



Non-Linear Basis Function

Residual sum of squares

$$RSS(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{y}_i - \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}_i))^2 = (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\Phi} \mathbf{w})$$

Non-linear design matrix

$$\boldsymbol{\varPhi} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(\mathbf{x}_1)^T \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_2)^T \\ \vdots \\ \phi(\mathbf{x}_N)^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times M}$$

LMS solution with the non-linear design matrix

$$\mathbf{w}^{LMS} = (oldsymbol{arPhi}^Toldsymbol{arPhi})^{-1}oldsymbol{arPhi}^T\mathbf{y}$$

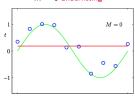


Non-Linear Basis Function

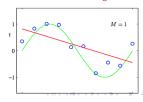
Example: Samples from a sine function

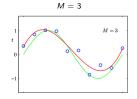
Polynomial basis function $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = [1 \times \dots \times^M]^T$



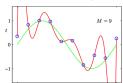


M = 1 underfitting











Overfitting

Weights of high order polynomials are very large

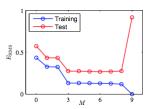
$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z_i} = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x_i}), \ \mathbf{z_i} = \phi(\mathbf{x_i}) \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

	M=0	M = 1	M = 3	M = 9
w_0	0.19	0.82	0.31	0.35
w_1		-1.27	7.99	232.37
w_2			-25.43	-5321.83
w_3			17.37	48568.31
w_4				-231639.30
w_5				640042.26
w_6				-1061800.52
w_7				1042400.18
w_8				-557682.99
w_9				125201.43



Overfitting

- The risk of using highly flexible (complicated) models without enough data
- Leads to poor generalization
- How to detect overfitting?
 - Plot model complexity (e.g. polynomial order) versus objective function
 - As complexity increases, performance on training improves, while on testing first improves and then deteriorates
- How to avoid overfitting?
 - More data or regularization





Linear Regression: To summarize

• Representation: linear and non-linear basis

$$f: \mathbf{x} \to y, \ f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$$

 $f: \mathbf{z} \to y, \ f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}), \ \phi: \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^M$

• Evaluation: Minimizing residual sum of squares

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} RSS(\mathbf{w}), RSS(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})$$

 $\min_{\mathbf{w}} RSS(\mathbf{w}), RSS(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{w})$

- Analytic Optimization: Ordinary least squares (OLS) solution $\mathbf{w}^* = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{v}, \quad \mathbf{w}^* = (\boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \boldsymbol{\Phi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \mathbf{v}$
- Approximate Optimization: Gradient descent
- Readings: Alpaydin Ch 2, Abu-Mostafa Ch 3.2; Handouts 6,7 on Piazza
- Code example: GradientDescentExample.ipynb on Google Drive https://colab.research.google.com/drive/1msq7f24288MTr6qaJStfEgsYMQ40sy3R